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AN OUTLINE OF SOCIAL STUDY FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

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A. INTRODUCTION

The recent developments in our country have abundantly shown that much of the abuse which has arisen in our political and industrial affairs has taken place because of the one-sided and exaggerated individualism which has been fostered in our educational and political system. Our psychology has been individualistic and our moral precepts and teaching have been in the direction of viewing the individual as a separate agent, alone accountable for his success and without obligation to the community which has really produced him. The cure for the bad conditions and the establishment of a better order of things must, in large part, proceed out of a better knowledge on the part of individuals of their place and function in society and of their duty to it. This knowledge cannot be given in a year by way of mere precepts bearing on duty in the abstract but must arise from a long inoculation through concrete teaching about the social relations of the individual and institutions as they are found in action in the community about the youth.

Among the many new educational conceptions which have appeared during the last few years the perception of the need and worth of socializing the child by the use of his social environment is a valuable one. More especially it is to be observed that this socialization is in reality a moralization, for, as Professor Dewey indicates, there is a vast difference between "moral ideas" and "ideas about morality," and what is now needed is the former. Moreover, moralization should be a process in which the emotional attitude of the child is developed relative to social situations so that his moral ideas are moving ideas and in his judgments and reactions to a given situation he identifies himself with the side of

justice and right, thus exercising the very functions in his school career that will be demanded of him in after life.

Much time is now given to discussing "how morality shall be taught." Very largely these discussions run to formulating schemes of teaching morality by precepts and textbooks. It is to be questioned if this formal teaching of morals would make moral people. To quote Professor Dewey, "these moral principles need to be brought down to the ground through their statement in social and in psychological terms. We need to see that moral principles are not arbitrary, that they are not 'transcendental'; that the term 'moral' does not designate a special region or portion of life. We need to translate the moral into the conditions and forces of our community life, and into the impulses and habits of the individual" (*Moral Principles in Education*, pp. 57-58).

It is conceived that the embodiment of the social context of the child in his educational process, thus giving him an understanding of its nature and operations and a sympathy with its best ideals, would be in reality and in a large way moralizing the individual.

As in the case of nature-study, which begins in the early years of the school and gives simple lessons about objects in nature and which becomes more and more complex in the objects considered or in the study of the objects and processes of nature until at the end of the elementary schools it is found capable of being differentiated into the several natural sciences, so there should be a range of social studies which begins with the simple things, the persons or functionaries of the community, in the early years of the school and takes in larger and larger areas of social facts and processes until at the end of the elementary schools the differentiation into the various social sciences may proceed. This is both a preparation for the higher work which will follow if the individual goes on in his educational career, and is a preparation for life in case the pupil is forced to drop off along the way.

It is not intended that this should displace history and civics which we now have. It would rather be supplemental and foundational for both. We are not immediately concerned with what history is considered to be by competent historians. There is a

wide discrepancy between what they would assign as its task and what our textbooks of history in elementary schools actually give. As these have been written, for most part they have emphasized four things: the past, commanding persons, community life on a vast scale, and the disconnected event. Perhaps it could be summed up in saying they have lacked an interpretation of the past life of our nation which would be significant for present life. Could Droysen's definition of history be made more actual, namely, "the effort of the present to understand itself by understanding the past," even then the child mind is likely to be swamped in attempting to secure a vital, working idea of community life, because of, first, the magnitude of the community studied, second, the difficulty of dealing with the past so as to make it directly fruitful for the present.

With only an appreciation of what our competent historians are doing, and with a desire to avoid the appearance of discrediting the teaching of history in the schools, it may be said, I think, that a kind of study is needed as a supplementary study which has for its end the development of the community consciousness as a vital, working part of the individual's life. In my estimation social study, when developed by discussion and experience, should be able to accomplish this. It would be fitted to do this for these reasons: First, it emphasizes the small communities, groups that are within the mental grasp of the child. Second, it makes use of local communities, chiefly, for attaining this aim. The factor of immediate interest or interest in the most immediate things and conditions is brought into requisition. Third, while communities remote in time in the evolutionary sense may be used, nevertheless the point of emphasis is on the present and most of the subject-matter is current. Fourth, the content of the course and the ideational matter is concrete instead of abstract. Interdependence and function may appear to be abstract, but when taught by means of living agents and personages which the child sees and knows they approach the concrete.

Social study thus seeks to build a working community-consciousness. At the same time it keeps in the foreground the ideal community, the ideal conditions of human life, the ideal relation-

ships of man in the service of humanity. Because of this it is a needed foundation for the unraveling and the understanding of the story told in history. It is a value study and gives the child standards of value to measure the worth of the historic events as they are met. It enables history to assume larger significance than it otherwise could.

In like manner it is not civics, though civics may be articulated with it as a phase of social study. For illustration, botany is nature-study but the reverse is not true because the whole is greater than its part. Nature-study, proper, opens up all sections of concrete nature to view. It is the basis of all the sciences, physical, biological, and anthropological. The same is true of social study. It gets at all parts and phases of community life, not merely the political or governmental. There are five or six fundamental phases of social life, or we may call them interests, which are expressed in human institutions or organizations, namely, the means or instruments through which men operate to satisfy these various wants. Some of these important segments of society are domestic, political, economic, religious, aesthetic, cultural, and sociability or "social." Civics covers that small section included in the political. It gives but a fragmentary view of man in his social relations. Social study would therefore supplement this valuable study.

It would also be a foundation for civics. Civics takes up the somewhat specialized study of the functions in society of a section of society, as was just said. Social study would first establish the idea of a larger entity called society, its interdependent, organic, and co-operative nature; secondly, give the idea of the function or service of every person or organization as a part of society; third, give ideals of what society and community life should strive to be, what the individual should be, and what his attitude should be to make possible the realization of progress and betterment. As Professor Small says of sociology:

Sociology declares that every thing which every man does is connected with every thing which every other man does. Before it is possible to learn this truth except by rote, we must get acquainted with a great number of facts which exhibit the principle. We must learn to see how one act affects another in our own lives; how one neighbor's conduct has to do with another neighbor's

comfort; how the things that we do depend on the things that others have done [A. W. Small, Introduction to Thurston, *Economics and Industrial History*, p. 13].

The following outline for a course in social study must be regarded as being only tentative in nature. It is intended to be a suggestion of what such a course might possibly be. No doubt if others were to undertake the task of formulating an outline, quite different results would ensue. Theoretically, a multitude of such courses might be formulated in which the contents would be somewhat different from course to course. But it is not so easily conceived that the principles involved in their organization could vary greatly. A thorough consideration and discussion of this particular outline would doubtless result in suggestions which would greatly improve and strengthen it.

A course of study of this nature is not entirely theoretical at the present time. At least one state in the Union is conducting an experiment in giving social instruction in its public schools. The essentials of this present social study course covering the first six years' work have been placed in the state course of study for the elementary schools in North Dakota. The experiment is in its second year and the writer of this article has gathered considerable information relative to its use and success. Since this topic is to be a matter of discussion in one of the sessions of the American Sociological Society meeting at Minneapolis in December, the data gathered will be reserved for that occasion. The bibliography which appears in connection with the various portions of the course is intended for the use of teachers. It is apparent that much of it is not adapted to their intelligence, or is inaccessible to them. The greatest difficulty is experienced in finding accessible and usable helps and readings in this line. Special effort will be required to develop it.

B. FIRST FOUR YEARS

In the first four years of school life the child is at the beginning of the larger conception of the world, the idea that there is a larger world of activity than he has enjoyed in the home. The child of six must have played with other children to a degree and discovered that similarities and differences exist between himself

and others. He has found satisfaction in the presence of other children and in carrying on activities with them. Now he is to carry this farther and to gain a larger insight into his powers of enjoyment and action and of pleasure which comes through closer concord and identification of interest. The object of social study in this period is not to get the child to build up and formulate a doctrine of social life or of social give-and-take, but to establish such conditions that the advantages of co-operative action and of mutual usefulness may be recognized.

FIRST YEAR

Expression of the associational sense and the beginnings of converted volition should be accomplished in this year. In so far as the children have attended kindergarten previous to this year, these preparatory steps have been made in a measure. In most cases this privilege is denied. The most natural and obvious means of accomplishing the object mentioned are play and games. Games of the simple sort are especially adapted to put into effect a germinal organization in which a common aim is set up and each participant has a part which makes or mars the success of the whole enterprise. Hence the child discovers that he must control himself and his bodily members in order to play successfully, his disposition is improved, he gains some understanding of human nature, picks up some technique of plans of procedure, may develop some initiative and leadership and some idea of group zeal, loyalty, and devotion. It is perhaps possible in this first year that the intelligent teacher may lead the children to discover the facts of interdependence and co-operation as facts.

It is assumed that play in the succeeding years will be used to further develop the social sense and associational ability. As this is an outline of social study the play phase will be dismissed.

The following suggestions of works helpful to teachers may be made:

Giddings, *Inductive Sociology*, Book II, Part II, chaps. iii and iv, shows the origin of the consciousness of kind and of concerted volition. Fundamental to give insight and understanding.

Johnson, *Education by Play and Games* (Ginn & Co.). Deals with nature of play and games, play ages, and lists and description of games for each play period.

Bancroft, *Games for the Playground, Home, School and Gymnasium* (Macmillan Co.). Gives repertoire of games and also social and pleasurable elements in them.

Heller, Mrs. H. H., *The Playground as a Phase of Social Reform*, Russell Sage Foundation, No. 31. Proceedings of the Third Annual Congress of the Playground Association of America, a very full outline of all phases of organized play.

Mangold, *Child Problems*, Book II, chaps. i and ii, on play and the playground movement.

The Playground, November, 1912, "Rural Recreation."

Perry, *Wider Use of the School Plant*, chap. vi, "School Playgrounds."

Mero, E. B., *American Playgrounds*, etc. (American Gymnasia Co., Boston, 1908).

SECOND YEAR

A Study of the Home Group

It is quite as obvious that the home group is the social group with which to begin to teach the facts of association as that play is the place of expression of the sense of association and the power to act in concert. It is the medium in which the child has developed thus far, and it enfolds him during the extra-school hours. Further it is the epitome of the larger world in its simpler terms and phases. The beginnings of the larger social life and institutions may be laid bare, such as the common welfare, need of co-operation and division of labor, mutual rights and obligations, law, government, culture, religion, and protection.

Common welfare.—This is probably represented by the word "living" to the child, and may be brought into sight by questions as to what articles and material things are needed for the health, happiness, and support of the home, and as to what is most needed and what the family could get along without.

Co-operation and division of labor.—What does father, mother, sister, brother, hired help do to furnish the things and services needed to make the home? Suppose one should get sick or die or go away, what would happen? What article or service would be missing?

Mutual rights.—How much belongs of food, clothing, heat, room, etc., to father, mother, brother, sister? May one eat all the butter or cake or pie and why? Should mother do all the washing, cooking, etc., if children are large enough to help her? Why? And so for each member of the family.

Law and government.—Are there any rules in the home? Who makes them? Who enforces them? Who decides if the offending member is guilty and what the penalty is? Are there any witnesses in trials? Who is the judge? Do all obey the same rules? May father come in with muddy feet if Johnny may not?

Culture.—Is there a library? Books? Papers? What for? Does anyone talk, tell stories, teach any child? Why? Suppose no one talked or read in the home. Is there music? Pictures? Is not home a kind of school?

And so for religion and protection in the home.

Some helpful books on this year's work for giving suggestions of the function and importance of the family are these:

Small and Vincent, *Introduction to Sociology*, Sections 83-87 (American Book Co.).

Henderson, *Social Elements* (Scribner), chap. iv, "The Family."

Elwood, *Sociology and Modern Social Problems* (American Book Co.), 2d ed., chap. iii.

Sealey, *The Sociology of the Family* (Macmillan).

Gillette, *The Family and Society* (McClurg, 1913), chap. i.

Cooley, *Social Organization* (Scribner, 1909), Part I, chap. iii, "Primary Europe."

THIRD AND FOURTH YEARS

A logical advance over the work of the second year is the study of the neighborhood. This should be expansive and suggestive as in the case of the family. Ideas of relationship should develop without dogmatic teachings. The essential ideas obtained through a study of the domestic group may be discerned in the next larger and more complex group, the neighborhood. Questions should be asked to bring out the nature, location, means of carrying on, the purpose, and authorization of the work of the various kinds of workers of the community. Further questions elicit information as to the mutuality of the work done by each, whose needs are fulfilled by it, whether those of the worker, the employer, the neighborhood group, or larger society, or all.

Compensation for service in various ways and the exchange of products and services may also receive interrogations.

The average rural community furnishes the following workers or functionaries who may be the object of the questions: farmer,

teacher, preacher, mail-carrier, blacksmith, carpenter, thresher, farm-hand, house girl, justice of the peace, marshal, school officers, road supervisors, etc. In a village or city other functionaries may be added at will, such as merchants, transfer men, lawyers, doctors, bankers, delivery men, car men, railway employees of various sorts, etc.

A suggestive treatment of the rural and village communities in the development of their functions and division of labor is found in Small and Vincent, *Introduction to Sociology*, chaps. iii, iv.

C. GRAMMAR GRADES

By a gradual evolution in the method of presenting to the child the social matter which surrounds him the teacher has thus far proceeded from mere suggestion and motor attitude to something approaching analysis and exposition of a systematic nature. The grammar grades should see the completion of this development, the more systematic efforts being left to the last years. The more complex phases of groups and situations may be taken up in the fifth and sixth grades and the study should be made more intensive by extending the range of the questions to more ultimate causes and conditions. Perhaps another distinct advance occurs in the ideal pursued by the teacher. The object is to make society appear to the pupils as quite as real and vitalized an object as would the insect, animal, or plant in the nature-study class. In fact, the very object of this social study course is to create in the child's mind that conception of the social world which regards it as a working organism, an interdependent and co-operative system of individuals, which is to serve as an advance on the common idea of so many discreet and independent individuals.

Further, the teaching should be so dynamic with ethical motive that the sentiment of justice and social right, of ideal actions and attitudes shall appear, the social judgments shall be built up and exercised, and the child be led to identify himself with the principle of democracy and fair dealing.

FIFTH GRADE

Either of the groups already studied may be reconsidered in a more intensive manner. But it would probably be better to

develop some other group in this way since a new field might arouse fresh interest, permitting the reconsideration of the others later, if desired. In the following suggestive outline of the intensive study of the school the teacher may adapt the material to the situation by omitting the consideration of such officials or functionaries as are not involved in the school the pupils are acquainted with.

This outline study of the school is taken from the articles on a social science outline by J. S. Welch, *Elementary School Teacher*, May and December, 1906:

[Intensive study of the school.] a) *Principal*.—Consider: selection of teachers and books; arranging course of study; programming studies; noting progress of pupils and advancing them in their school work; care of school property; of individual and school rights; health and safety of pupils; proper janitor service, etc.; service to the social group.

b) *The teacher*.—Consider: what she is for; how she does her work; the preparation she has made; who benefits by what she does; how she is helped—hindered—in her work; whose loss when she is hindered; how hindrance may be avoided; what she has a right to expect; her service to the school group; to the social group.

c) *The janitor*.—Consider: what he does; why he does it; why it is important; what the result if neglected; how it may affect us; how he is helped—hindered—in his work; what should be our attitude toward him; why; what are his needs; how are they satisfied; what he exchanges his labor for; we satisfy his needs for what; what he gains; what we gain; what effect his absence would have on our work.

d) *The pupil*.—Consider: what he is here for; basis of the right; who makes the privilege possible; what he gives in return; the benefit to those who pay for it; who furnishes him the conditions for growth; what his attitude should be toward property; why; toward school books; toward his own books; why; how he is helped to make wise use of books and materials; how the teacher is helped—hindered—in doing this; how the pupil is affected when the teacher is busied with nonessentials; what he has a right to expect from teachers; what teachers have a right to expect from him; what factors make a school; what conditions determine growth.

An alternative study or a supplementary one to the school may be found in a study of a primitive group as a complete organic social body. It is another means of gaining an idea of the simpler forms and institutions of society. Such a group may be the Siouan or the Iroquoian for example. Questions on family, clan, and tribal government, on war and peace, on civil and military chiefs,

on medicine and medicine-men, on religious ideas and rites, on modes of hunting, fishing, raising crops, housekeeping, division of labor between men and women, on education of the boys and girls, on keeping records of events, on communication and language, on implement-making, on mythology, etc., may bring out the salient points.

Expansive helps for teachers in a cheap and accessible form relative to primitive life can hardly be said to exist. But the following references contain some of the matter from which such helps may be derived:

These annual reports of the Bureau of American Ethnology contain sociological studies of the American Indians mentioned: Seminole, 5th report, pp. 475-531; Siouan sociology, 15th report; the Omaha tribe, 27th report, pp. 199-605; the western Eskimo, 18th report, pp. 19-518; both the *Prima* and the *Tlingit* Indians are treated in the 26th report.

Graphic pictures and descriptions of primitive life are contained in Miss Dopp's *Cave Dwellers* and *Tree Dwellers*, and in Waterloo's *Story of Ab* and London's *Before Adam*. Chapin's *Social Evolution* (Century Co.) contains much attractive material on primitive man, tribal society being especially treated in chap. viii.

SIXTH GRADE

As a study for the sixth grade, pioneer conditions may be selected. Such a study would be representative of recent frontier conditions or of those a century ago. This would be especially valuable to give a working idea of how societies got started and how they developed. It would show also how the interdependencies began, and how very desirable they were after people had had to do without them.

a) *The land*.—Consider: what the prairie (or forest) was like; what was the character of the soil; what kind of vegetation grew; what kind of animals and birds; what advantage the soil, vegetation, and animals would be to settlers; what was the climate and how it affected the newcomers or hindered them.

b) *The immigrants or settlers*.—Consider: where they came from; whether they were savage or civilized and what difference it would make in them and in what they did; what they brought with them in property, equipment, animals, books, and why; what their personal equipment in knowledge, education, skill, ideas of government, religion, and education, taste, and character; their motives in settling in an unsettled country as related to getting a living and property, their sacrifices in companionship and conveniences, and their curiosity about the region.

c) *The beginnings*.—Consider: why the particular piece of ground was chosen; why the home was located where it was; how the house and stables were built; how the ground was broken (and cleared perhaps); what the man did; what the woman did; which could get along best without the other; how they protected their home from fire and themselves from disease; how they procured or made the articles they needed; what the daily round of work for man and for wife; what amusement or recreation; what was done with their produce; what they got for it.

d) *The coming of others*.—Consider: the birth of children and the differences it made in work and incentive to man and woman; the hiring of a hand and its effect on the household cares, on the man's work, on production, on companionship; the appearance of emigrants; why they came; where they settled; what they brought of goods and information; the changes it made in the life of the original family; how they differed in ideas and personality from each other and the difference it made.

e) *The neighborhood*.—Consider: how the farms are located; the necessity of a survey; how trails and footpaths are used; the likeness of family life and what it makes possible; the exchange of work and co-operation; the beginnings of specialization, the ferry, transportation; exchange of produce; the new store and how it becomes a social center; the appearance of a blacksmith-shop and its effects; the school, and why, results; the church, and why, results; organization of a township, why, effects and services.

Especially helpful books on the fifth-, and especially the sixth-, grade work are:

Small and Vincent, *Introduction to Society*, chaps. i, ii, on which the outline for frontier life is based.

Thurston, *Economic and Industrial History*, first few chapters on occupation. *Proceedings of the North Dakota Historical Society*, Vols. I and II.

F. J. Turner, *The Significance of the Frontier in American History*, extracts given in Bullock, *Selected Readings in Economics*.

An alternative or supplementary study to the pioneer community may be found in the correlation of the geographical and social factors of a physiographical unit.

Consider:

a) The topography in its area, configuration, altitude, and water courses, showing how each of these bears out the distribution of population.

b) Climatic conditions in the way of temperature, length of seasons, and amount of moisture precipitation with reference to farming and other occupations, products, etc.

c) Soil and natural resources, such as forests, fish, mines, and waterfalls, in their significance for farming, lumbering, fishing, mining, and manufactur-

ing industries. The kinds of soil and the fertility of the soil would further differentiate occupations.

d) Populations, races, and nationalities, as to origins and characteristics, only in so far as they are necessary to explain differences which retard or promote the regional well-being and in so far as they illustrate the larger world.

e) Industries, in their bearing on the location and distribution of people, their reasons for particular locations, their relation to the life of the region, and their conditioning influences in the establishment and maintenance of commercial relations with the larger world.

f) Transportation and communicating facilities, in their bearing on the prosperity and satisfaction of the region and their influence on locating larger collective populations for commerce and manufacturing. In connection with these last two points much supplementary reading might be done. This is a good place to get out into the larger world by following the threads of communication and transportation to see how they really relate and unify the region with others.

g) Influence of pursuits and occupations on the life of the people of the region in the way of customs, habitations, dress, education, religion, culture, and government.

In addition to one or both of these studies, the civics of the district and township should be taken up by the use of some standard text on civics which treats those items in a working manner.

SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES

Social study in the seventh and eighth grades becomes more mature, reaches out to grasp principles for the solution of problems, gets organized so as to illuminate specific situations, yet must remain essentially concrete, because the pupils are still children. In the seventh year the study of civics may comprise the civics of county and state, the better type of texts affording adequate syllabi for the purpose. The emphasis in teaching should be thrown on functions and duties of officers, good as opposed to bad systems of nomination and election of officers, rather than on the enumeration of offices and mere memorization of election dates. The average civics, especially those on local government, are purely static things, synopses of election dates, names of officers, and dry statements of duties. They are lifeless, and unless the teacher has fire and imagination, a real understanding of our political life, and an enthusiastic conception of what government should be and do, the study will be of slight value. Some of the newer

texts are dynamic and functional. Careful selection will arm the teacher with a competent text as syllabus. In the eighth year the civics study should be devoted to the study of national government, particularly in its working aspects.

A study of how government is actually conducted by means of organized parties which control nomination, election, and therefore legislation and principles of administration, and the popular movements to bring the government closer to the people should be placed in the foreground. Such texts as Foreman's, or James and Sanford's seek to accomplish this end.

The other phase of the social study might be devoted to a consideration of rural social problems. If country pupils are to gain a conception of the specific problems which exist in rural life, the process of enlightenment should take place in school before the bulk of the boys and girls have passed out. In the rural regions there is an especially heavy elimination from school in the later years. In many portions of the nation only a small percentage actually complete the elementary grades. Hence some discussion of these problems should be given at least as early as the seventh grade.

In the absence of published texts on rural social matters which are available for rural teachers, the outline may be made a little fuller. The particular problems or general topics presented here, if the teacher faithfully prepares the material for suggesting a variety of questions on each subtopic and phase, and for interesting information and data, will probably develop the chief points of importance. Naturally the information cannot be offered in a suggestive outline. Sufficient references are given to develop the facts pertinent to most of the topics and subtopics.

I. The Rural Problem.

1. Origin of: Recent agitation; no agricultural deterioration; exists in perception of improvable conditions; work of the Roosevelt Commission.
2. What it is:
 - a) Improvement in the business of farming: Scientific agriculture; scientific accounts; scientific marketing.
 - b) Improving in education to make schools meet demands of farm life.

- c) Improvement in living conditions: The home; the roads; the church.
- d) Improvement in association and organization.
- e) Improvement in health and recreation.
- 3. How to meet it: By agitation; by discussion; by co-operation; by organization.

References.—Butterfield, *Chapters in Rural Progress*, chap. ii, "The Problem of Progress"; Fiske, *The Challenge of the Country*, chap. i; Kern, *Among Country Schools*, chap. i, "The New Country Life"; Bailey, *The Housing of the Farmers*, pp. 6-25; *Rural Life Commission Report* (Sturgis & Walton Co.); Gillette, *Constructive Rural Sociology* (Sturgis & Walton Co.), chap. v.

II. The Problem of Better Agriculture.

- 1. Soil sterilization: Methods of its accomplishment: one-crop method; poor cultivation.
- 2. Soil improvement: Rotation of crops following fertilization; soil inoculation; improved cultivation.
- 3. Advantages of diversification: Makes farming more stable and certain; uses labor supply to better advantage; feeding stock produce makes double profit.
- 4. Keeping accounts of farming:
 - a) What it covers: Fields seeded, with area, location, varieties, time, cultivation, amount of seed, amount of produce; cost of labor, seed, machinery used, of feed and horse-power; amount of sales.
 - b) Advantage: Gives record of what is profitable and unprofitable, and degree of profit of given produce; puts farming on business basis.
- 5. Marketing organization:
 - a) Agencies which absorb farmer's profits: Middlemen; line elevators; railways.
 - b) Protective agencies: Co-operative societies; American Society of Equity; Farmers' Union.

References.—Butterfield, *Chapters in Rural Progress*, chap. iii, "The Expansion of Farm Life"; Bailey, *The State and the Farmer*, chap. i; Fiske, chap. iv; Harwood, *New Earth*, chaps. iii, vi, x, and xv; Gillette, chaps. vii, viii; United States Agricultural Department, *Farmers' Bulletins*, Nos. 28, 44, 54, 132, 242, 245, 257, 315.

III. Social Phases of Grain Raising.

- 1. Wheat raising (as sample): Social importance.
- 2. Soil and seeding:
 - a) Importance of good seed: Purity; vitality; adapted to the region.

- b) Preparation of the soil.
 - c) Seasons for seeding.
- 3. Climate and wheat growing: Conditions or ranges of temperature; moisture; distribution of rain in seasons.
- 4. Machinery and wheat growing:
 - a) Kinds used in production.
 - b) Comparison with former methods.
 - c) How they are made and sold.
- 5. The farmer and the wheat market:
 - a) His dependence on the market by reason of his specialization.
 - b) The fact of competition with other producers.
 - c) Supply and demand, and price.
 - d) Middlemen organizations and control of price.
 - e) Transportation system as necessary to connect with market: What it gets; can farmer set freight rates?

IV. Rural Labor.

- 1. Deficiencies in rural labor:
 - a) Supply lacking at time of need.
 - b) Vicious and unreliable characters.
 - c) Unspecialized and untrained for farming.
- 2. Reasons for labor problem:
 - a) Dislike of farm work.
 - b) Dependence on floating city population.
 - c) Irregular, partial, and seasonal demands for farm labor.
- 3. Betterment of conditions:
 - a) Develop work for labor throughout the year, so as to hold the supply in the country.
 - b) Provide for labor families to encourage permanence and give living advantages.

References.—Gillette, chap. x; Fiske, pp. 74–82.

V. Making Farm Life More Attractive.

- 1. Why people leave the farm:
 - a) Social attractions of cities.
 - b) Improved living conditions in cities.
 - c) Low estimate of farming and farmer.
 - d) Hard work and drudgery.
 - e) Cultural disadvantages.
- 2. Making home attractive:
 - a) Improved homes: Heating plants; bathing facilities; inside toilet; improved kitchen devices.
 - b) More books and periodicals.
 - c) Beautification of home.
 - d) Beautification of grounds.

- e) Music.
- f) Making cooking scientific.
- 3. Making outdoor work attractive:
 - a) Use of labor-saving machinery: Windmills; gasoline engines or other motor power for machines run by hand; milking machines; riding machinery.
 - b) Shorter hours and faster pace.
 - c) Diversification of crops and industry to distribute work and decrease need of rush.
 - d) Scientific agriculture to increase intellectual element.
- 4. Improved roads for quick communication, travel, and visiting.
- 5. Social center for associational purposes.

References.—United States Department of Agriculture, *Farmers' Bulletins*, Nos. 1 and 5, "Beautifying the Home Grounds"; No. 270, "Modern Conveniences for the Home"; No. 126, "Practical Suggestions for Farm Buildings"; Henderson, *Social Spirit in America*, chap. ii, "Home Making as a Social Art"; Gillette, chaps. vi, ix, xii; Fiske, chap. iii; McKeever, *Farm Boys and Girls*, chaps. iii, iv, v, x, xiii, xv.

VI. The School and Farm Life.

- 1. Conditions of a vigorous living school: Professionally trained teachers; large number of pupils to create interest; grading and classification; good buildings and equipment; regular attendance.
- 2. Defects of rural schools: Untrained teachers; small number of pupils; irregular attendance; lack of graded system; small, poorly heated, poorly ventilated buildings; city-made course of study, books, and ideals; absence of training for the chief business of the community—agriculture and domestic economy.
- 3. Remedies: Consolidation most advantageous because it attracts better teachers, makes attractive, differentiated, and equipped buildings which permit grading, teaching of agriculture, manual training, and domestic economy; transports pupils, thus securing better attendance; multiplies pupils, which makes for enthusiasm; provides a center for the varied social needs of the community; and furnishes organized play and recreation so much needed in country life.

References.—Foght, *The American Rural School*, chaps. i, v, vii, ix, xi, xv; Kern, *Among Country Schools*, chaps. ii, x, xii, xiii, xiv; United States Department of Agriculture, Bulletin No. 232, "Consolidated Rural Schools and Organization of a Country System"; Gillette, chap. xvi; references at end of chapter; Fiske, chap. vi; McKeever, chaps. xvi, xvii; C. C. Schmidt, "The Consolidation of Rural Schools," *Education Bulletin No. 3*, University of North Dakota, 1912; probably the best work on the subject.

VII. Rural Hygiene.

1. Social importance of good health:
 - a) The poor, the defectives, and the criminal classes spring from devitalized classes.
 - b) Physical weakness produces unhappiness, irritation, bad disposition.
 - c) Sickness a great inconvenience and expense.
2. Menaces and suggestions as to rural health: Infected water supply; neighboring barnyard filth; uncleanness in production of milk supply; emptying slops in yard; uncared-for closets; stagnant pools; exposure and colds; bad teeth; eyestrains, poor hearing, and poor breathing, especially of school children; bad methods of preserving and keeping food; propagation of germs by drinking-cups, pencils, books, etc.; patent medicines; want of proper bathing facilities.
3. How schools may be made sanitary: Scrubbing floor; whitewashing plaster; painting woodwork; jacketing the stove; window ventilators; covered water tank; cleansed and disinfected closets.

References.—Allen, *Civics and Health*; Foght, *The American Rural School*, chap. xiv; Gillette, chap. xi, with references; Isaac Bemer, *Rural Hygiene*; Kern, *Among Country Schools*, chap. v.

VIII. Good Roads and Farm Life.

1. Significance for civilization: Roads in Roman Empire; roads in Europe today.
2. Social function of roads: Local transportation of produce; interchange of courtesies; growth of ideas and fellowship; basis of prosperity of schools, lodges, churches, sociables, entertainments, spelling-matches, musical classes, etc.
3. Economy of good roads: Saving in hauling; saving in wagons and horses; increases value of land; speed and pleasure in travel.
4. Methods of securing roads: "Working the roads"; cash wages; working prisoners; state aid as local support.
5. Kinds of country roads: Earth roads and split-log drag; sand-clay roads and puddling; burnt clay roads and lining; dust preventive; hard roads—gravel, shell, stone.

References.—United States Department of Agriculture, "Roads and Road Building," "Macadam Roads," "Use of the Split Log Drag," *Farmers' Bulletin*, No. 321; Fiske, chap. iii; Gillette, chap. ix; Henderson, *Social Spirit in America*, chap. vi.

IX. Socializing Country Life.

1. Facts of lack of social life in country as compared with city: Churches; theaters; neighbors; public balls; amusement places; recreation; libraries; culture clubs, etc.

2. Causes of social poverty: Isolation; bad roads; absence of large and specialized buildings; individualistic philosophy; depreciation of play and recreation; lack of reading-habit; the work-habit.
3. Means of socialization: Good roads; automobiles; telephones and rural delivery; schools and churches built for social purposes; farmers' organizations such as institute, grange, American Society of Equity, farmers' unions, etc.; mothers' clubs and literary clubs among women; athletic meets and tournaments at school grounds; literary and debating clubs; spelling-matches; lectures and entertainments; moving-picture shows; banquets, feasts, and "socials."

References.—On social isolation: Butterfield, *Chapters in Rural Progress*, pp. 17-22; Bailey, *Insufficiencies in Country Life*, "The Training of the Farmer," pp. 15-19; Butterfield, "The Country Church and Progress," chap. xii; *School Buildings for Social Purposes*, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bulletin No. 232, on consolidated schools; Foght, "Libraries for Rural Communities," chap. xiii, and Kern, chap. vi; Johnson, *Education by Play and Games*, "Organized Play and Recreation"; Butterfield, "Farmers' Institutes," chap. vii, and Kern, chap. ix; Butterfield, "The Grange," chap. x, "Opportunities for Farm Women," chap. xi; Fiske, chap. v; Gillette, chaps. xiii-xviii; McKeever, chaps. vi-x.

THE LARGER SOCIAL WORLD

The larger side of social life, that which reaches beyond the local community into the nation and world, may be developed by means of a brief discussion once or twice a week of the events which are transpiring in the world at large. This should be done in a manner that would make each event treated mean something for life by showing how it changes conditions and thus makes for improvement or deterioration.

A brief treatment and discussion of certain phases of our industrial history would also be useful to cultivate the idea of the articulation of ourselves with the world and to give an understanding of some of the pressing economic issues. The little weekly paper entitled *Current Events*, published in Springfield, Massachusetts, is recommended as exceedingly useful to accomplish the former purpose. Thurston's *Economic and Industrial History* would give the material for the second, and an account of its size is quite usable. Coman's *Industrial History of the United States*, or Bogart's *Economic History of the United States* are fuller and more pretentious. It would be sufficient to select only the more recent problems of labor and industry.